

1 Practical and operational considerations related to paediatric
2 oral drug formulation: an industry survey

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24 modelling

25 Abstract

26 For over 15 years, US and EU regulations ensure that medicines developed for children are explicitly
27 authorised for such use with age-appropriate forms and formulations, implying dedicated research. To
28 shed light on how these regulations have been adopted by pharmaceutical companies and how various
29 aspects of paediatric oral drug formulation development are currently handled, an exploratory survey
30 was conducted. Topics included: general company policy, regulatory aspects, dosage form selection,
31 in-vitro, in-silico and (non-)clinical in-vivo methods, and food effects assessment. The survey results
32 clearly underline the positive impact of the paediatric regulations and their overall uptake across the
33 pharmaceutical industry. Even though significant improvements have been made in paediatric product
34 development, major challenges remain. In this respect, dosage form selection faces a discrepancy
35 between the youngest age groups (liquid products preference) and older subpopulations (adult
36 formulation preference). Additionally, concerted research is needed in the development and validation
37 of in-vitro tools and physiology based pharmacokinetic models tailored to the paediatric population,
38 and in estimating the effect of non-standard and paediatric relevant foods. The current momentum in
39 paediatric drug development and research should allow for an evolution in standardised methodology
40 and guidance to develop paediatric formulations, which would benefit pharmaceutical industry and
41 regulators.

42 1 Introduction

43 Paediatric drug research has long been predominantly governed by the extrapolation of knowledge
44 gained in adults without actually testing medicines in children. The understanding of age-dependent
45 physiological changes and their impact on drug disposition has long been obscure and systematic
46 research activities only emerged in recent years (Hirschfeld and Saint-Raymond, 2011; Richey et al.,
47 2013; Shirkey, 1999; Turner et al., 2014). The vulnerability of the paediatric population within clinical
48 research, practical difficulties in recruiting paediatric patients, decreased commercial interest,
49 increased cost, and a greater risk of liability, remained pivotal arguments to neglect paediatric centred
50 research and drug development. Moreover, until recently, the small market share and comparatively
51 smaller return on investment often caused paediatric drug development programmes to be driven by
52 a company's product development strategy for the adult population, rather than the actual paediatric
53 needs (Bourgeois et al., 2012; Joseph et al., 2015; Saint Raymond and Brasseur, 2005; Turner, 2015).

54 It took decades of concerted efforts by regulatory agencies to shift paediatric medicines development
55 from "therapeutic or pharmaceutical orphans" to the centre stage of drug development research. This
56 shift was driven by the Best Pharmaceuticals for Paediatrics Act (BPCA) (U.S. Government, 2002) and
57 the Pediatric Research Equity Act (PREA) (U.S. Government, 2003) by the Food and Drug

58 Administration (FDA), and the Regulation No 1901/2006 on medicinal products for paediatric use (The
59 European Parliament and the Council of 12 December 2006, 2006) by the European Medicines Agency
60 (EMA). The current US and EU regulations ensure that the medicines developed for children are
61 explicitly authorised for such use with age-appropriate forms and formulations. As these regulations
62 have now been implemented for over 15 years, it is interesting to investigate how these regulations
63 were adopted and implemented by pharmaceutical companies into drug development. The approach
64 to paediatric product development is still evolving and the toolbox for prediction of performance of
65 medicines in paediatric populations is fragmented. The current publication reports the results of an
66 industry survey that gauges how paediatric drug formulation and specifically prediction of in-vivo
67 performance is currently being handled within the pharmaceutical industry. As oral formulations are
68 mostly used for the paediatric population, the focus was on oral product development. Questioned
69 topics include: general information regarding the company policy, regulatory strategies, dosage form
70 selection criteria, in-vitro, in-silico and non-clinical in-vivo methods in the development of paediatric
71 formulations and food effects assessment.

72 2 Materials and methods

73 An exploratory survey was designed with the aim to get insight into how paediatric drug development
74 is handled in the pharmaceutical industry. The topics included in the survey were not limited to
75 activities within the framework of the regulatory requirements but also focussed on an R&D
76 perspective. Participants were asked to consider all activities related to paediatric drug development,
77 including successful and failed drug development projects, as well as non-commercial research-based
78 projects.

79 For most questions, a multiple-choice approach was used to reduce respondent burden and allow for
80 easier and faster evaluation of the results. In order not to restrict input, however, a free text field was
81 added to allow comments.

82 To test the clarity of the questions and responses, a draft version was sent out to a potential participant
83 in advance. The survey was adapted based on the recommendations.

84 The topics covered in this survey on paediatric medicines development included:

- 85 - General information regarding the company policy
- 86 - Regulatory strategies
- 87 - Dosage form selection criteria
- 88 - In-vitro, in-silico and in-vivo biopharmaceutical methods in the development of paediatric
89 formulations

90 - Food effects assessment

91 The full questionnaire with results per question is provided as supplementary information to this
92 manuscript. Please note that some of the questions allowed respondents to tick more than one
93 answer. Unless otherwise specified, survey results are reported per answering option as the
94 percentage of respondents that indicated the option.

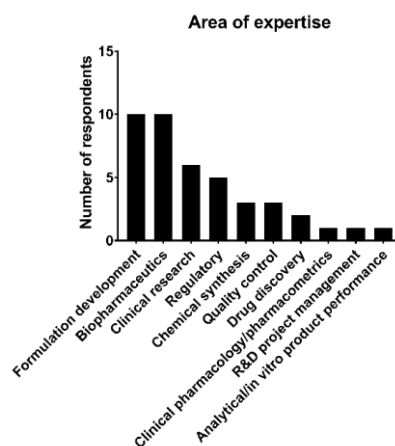
95 This questionnaire was sent out to 14 major industrial research groups involved in drug formulation
96 development and paediatric drug research. This focus was chosen since major research groups often
97 have more experience with paediatric drug development as multiple projects are handled in parallel.
98 No geographical restrictions were taken into account while selecting respondents. Selection of
99 respondents was limited to pharmaceutical industry R&D scientists; no academics, healthcare
100 professionals or regulatory agencies were contacted.

101 Responses to this survey were collected between April 2021 and May 2021.

102 3 Results and discussion

103 3.1 Participant demographics

104 In total, 12 companies provided a response to the questionnaire. Of the 12 responding companies, 2
105 acted as individual respondents while the other 10 companies responded as a team. As shown in Figure
106 1, the respondents covered a wide spectrum of expertise within the pharmaceutical industry, with
107 formulation development and biopharmaceutics being the most represented, followed by clinical
108 research and regulatory.



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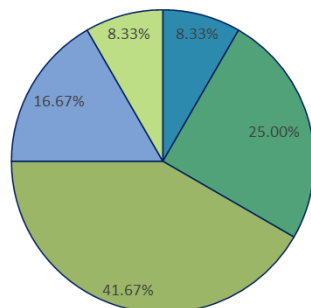
110 *Figure 1: Summary of the areas of expertise of the 12 survey respondents.*

111 3.1.1 Experience in (paediatric) medicines development

112 Seventy-five percent of respondents had a team member with at least 20 years of experience in drug
113 development while the other 25 % had 11-15 years of experience. Experience in paediatric drug

114 development was more limited with only 25 % of the respondents having a team member with over
 115 15 years of experience. 41.67 % had 11-15 years of experience with the rest (33.33 %) having less than
 116 10 years of experience (Figure 2). All responding companies had one or more paediatric formulations
 117 on the market.

How many years of experience do you have in paediatric drug development?



■ 1 - 5 years ■ 6 - 10 years ■ 11 - 15 years ■ 15 - 20 years ■ 20+ years

118

119 *Figure 2: Summary of the years of experience in paediatric drug development.*

120 3.1.2 Company research policy

121 The participating companies are active in different fields related to paediatric medicines research,
 122 including clinical research, formulation research and drug substance research, as indicated in Table 1.

	Clinical Research	Formulation Research	Drug Substance Research
No research conducted	0	0	3
Only regulatory required	4	2	3
In-house research	1	2	1
In-house research and external projects	6	7	3
No answer	1	1	2

123 *Table 1: Number of respondents active in clinical, formulation and drug substance research related to paediatric drug*
 124 *development.*

125 The majority of respondents ranked medical functions in the company as most important to identify
 126 and understand patient and caregiver needs in paediatric care, followed by marketing and market
 127 access functions, and biopharmaceutical and formulation research. Functions related to clinical
 128 pharmacology and pharmacokinetics were deemed as least important. One company raised the
 129 importance of patient advocacy groups to help and better understand the paediatric population.

130 3.2 Regulatory

131 This section of the survey sought to explore regulatory strategies and how their impact on practical
 132 and scientific considerations are managed within the paediatric product development programs.

133 3.2.1 Timing of regulatory submissions

134 When developing new drug products, a paediatric development plan is obligatory unless a waiver has
135 been granted by the regulatory agencies. EMA expects the application of a Paediatric Investigation
136 Plan (PIP) to be submitted early in drug development, that is, no later than upon completion of the
137 human pharmacokinetic (PK) studies in adults, except in duly justified cases (European Medicines
138 Agency, 2022; Penkov et al., 2017). To further clarify the timelines, the agency categorically states that
139 “the timing of submission should not be later than the end of healthy subject or patient PK, which can
140 coincide with the initial tolerability studies, or the initiation of the adult phase-II studies (proof-of-
141 concept studies); it cannot be after initiation of pivotal trials or confirmatory (phase-III) trials”. In the
142 US, if required under the PREA, the sponsor should submit an initial Pediatric Study Plan (PSP) no later
143 than 60 calendar days after the end-of-phase 2 (EOP2) meeting or such other time agreed between
144 the sponsor and the FDA. In the absence of an EOP2 meeting, the sponsor must submit the initial PSP
145 as early as practicable, but before the initiation of any phase 3 studies or any combined phase 2 and 3
146 study (US Food and Drug Administration, 2020).

147 The current survey indicated that 66.67 % of the responding companies submit a PIP to the EMA no
148 later than the completion of adult human PK studies, while only 25 % of the companies do this at the
149 end of phase 2 studies. One company (8.33 %) preferred not to answer this question.

150 The PSP submission timelines varied between the respondents, with 33.33 % of the companies
151 submitting the initial PSP to the FDA within 60 days after the EOP2 meeting of the adult drug
152 development, 25 % of the companies doing this at the end of human adult PK studies and 25 % by the
153 date of the Phase 2 meeting. One of the respondents (8.33 %) confirmed submitting a PSP to the FDA
154 as close to the EOP2 meeting as possible and one respondent did not answer this question.

155 Some differences do exist between the two agencies regarding the expected time for submission of a
156 proposed PIP or initial PSP by the applicant (or a request for waiver). However, efforts have recently
157 been made for the regulatory agencies’ alignment on paediatric development plans especially for rare
158 diseases such as childhood cancer and for COVID treatments (European Medicines Agency, 2021a).

159 The legislative and regulatory frameworks have indirectly compelled the pharma companies to invest
160 in infrastructure and put together dedicated expertise to ensure that the adequate paediatric research
161 capabilities are in place to support the agreed development plans. Consequently, these regulations
162 have a direct impact on the companies’ R&D expenditure. Based on the 2017 paediatric medicine
163 report from the EU commission to the EU parliament and the council, the average regulatory cost
164 incurred by the pharma companies amounts to EUR 18.9 million per PIP (European Commission, 2017).

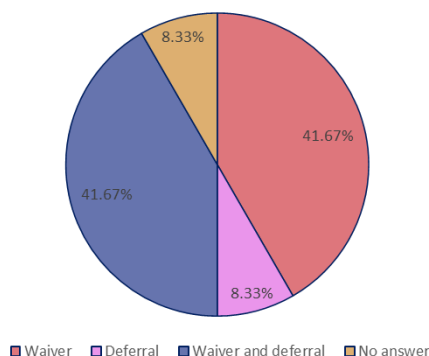
165 3.2.2 Requests for waivers or deferrals for paediatric drug development

166 While the regulatory agencies expect the pharma industries to invest more in the paediatric research
167 programmes and provide accurate dosage forms for the use of drugs in children, they also recognize
168 the critical challenges involved in gaining such information. Hence, a system of waivers for the
169 medicines that are unlikely to benefit children, and a system of deferrals in relation to the timing of
170 the paediatric measures to be conducted, have also been part of the paediatric legislations (European
171 Commission, 2017).

172 The survey revealed that 83.33 % of the companies already received either a waiver or a waiver and
173 deferral for paediatric drug development. 8.33 % received only a deferral and another 8.33 % chose
174 not to answer the question (Figure 3). The general reasons to seek a waiver or deferral were: ‘the
175 indication is not relevant for paediatrics’, ‘no or a lack of expected therapeutic benefit for children’ or
176 ‘patients of interest are too difficult or cannot be recruited’. Additional reasons were ‘a too high
177 risk/benefit ratio’ or ‘the adult dosage form and doses are suitable for the paediatric population’.

178

Has your company received a waiver or deferral for paediatric development?



179

180 *Figure 3: Summary of the companies' experience with deferrals and waivers.*

181 3.2.3 Requests for scientific advice/compliance checks

182 Paediatric drug development regulation is a complex arena, and the regulations as well as the drug
183 development strategies have evolved with more paediatric medicines getting approved. Dialogue and
184 close collaboration between all the major stakeholders is very important. In the recent past, a number
185 of regulatory documents have been made available in the public domain, both by FDA and EMA, to
186 help guide companies through the submission procedures and to assist them in answering the specific
187 queries regarding the study design and conduct. Moreover, to increase the transparency and dialogue
188 between the health authorities and the companies, a provision of free paediatric scientific advice has
189 been made available.

190 Almost all of the responding companies (91.67 %) have asked scientific advice from a regulatory agency
191 for paediatric drug development. One company (8.33 %) chose not to answer the question. During this
192 survey, the participating companies were also asked whether they had submitted a paediatric plan to
193 a compliance check and, if yes, whether they experienced any issues in the procedure. Half of the
194 companies that responded indicated that they have submitted a paediatric plan for a compliance check
195 (50 %), and nobody reported any specific issues. One company indicated that the questions posed
196 were resolved. Around 25 % of the companies has not yet submitted a paediatric plan for a compliance
197 check and the other 25 % chose not to answer the question.

198 The survey results thus indicate that companies seize the opportunity of early consultations with the
199 regulatory agencies, which may help them in building a rational strategy and improving the information
200 exchange, thereby reducing the product development timelines.

201 3.2.4 Main regulatory challenges

202 When participants were questioned about the main challenges their companies had encountered with
203 the regulatory pathway for paediatric products, the results revealed that the most common and the
204 major challenge was the 'proposed paediatric study design', followed by 'paediatric PK'. The 'safety
205 and use of excipients in paediatric population' and 'formulation bridging based on *in-vitro/in-silico*
206 results were comparatively less frequent challenges. Additional areas reported during the survey were
207 'extrapolation of information from older age groups', 'scarcity of paediatric patients in certain age
208 groups', 'pH of formulations' and 'paediatric patient recruitment'.

209 3.3 Dosage form selection

210 One of the key differences in paediatric versus adult product development is the requirement for dose
211 flexibility (e.g., dosing by weight or body surface area), as well as the regulatory requirement to
212 demonstrate patient compliance. A variety of oral dosage forms can be used in paediatric patients; a
213 recent review of commercially available oral paediatric formulations identified 16 different types of
214 formulations (Strickley, 2019). These can be sub-divided into ready to use formulations (oral solution,
215 oral suspension, tablet, mini-tablet, oral soluble film, orally disintegrating tablet, and chewable tablet)
216 and those that require additional processing (micro particulates, granule for oral suspension, powder
217 for oral solution, powder for oral suspension, tablet, scored tablet, dispersible tablet, tablet for oral
218 suspension, and concentrated oral suspension).

219 To ensure timely paediatric drug development, its development is often based on knowledge gained
220 from adult drug product development. However, paediatric drug development often starts later in the
221 drug life cycle. Consequently, it generally lags some months/years behind the adult product though
222 still follows a development path parallel to its adult counterpart. Additionally, there is typically a desire

223 to adapt the adult product for the paediatric population to allow for the easiest development. This
224 may involve using an adapted formulation where there is known compatibility of the excipients with
225 the active pharmaceutical ingredient (API). As adult oral products are most typically tablets, and since
226 the know-how and facilities within companies are typically strongest in tablet design and
227 manufacturing, a paediatric formulation that is based on a tablet is desirable, for example a mini-tablet
228 or granule.

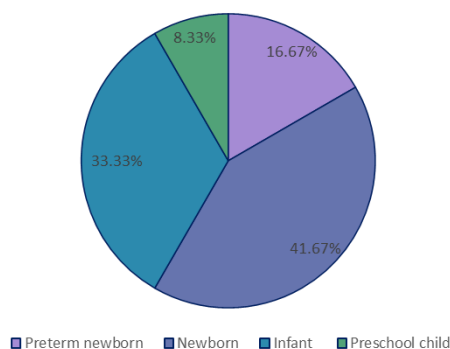
229 This section of the survey sought to explore the companies' strategy to select dosage forms that meet
230 the needs for dose flexibility, acceptability, and ease of manufacturing for a paediatric product.

231 3.3.1 Age-specific formulation development

232 For most of the responding companies (41.67 %), newborns are the youngest population for which an
233 age-specific formulation would be considered, followed by infants (33.33 %), preterm newborns (16.67
234 %) and preschool children (8.33 %) (Figure 4).

235 Factors relevant in determining the type of dosage form to develop were ranked with 'dosing accuracy
236 and flexibility' being indicated as most important, followed by 'in-vivo performance requirements',
237 'patient and caregiver needs' and 'technical constraints'; 'regulatory feedback/acceptance' was
238 reported as the least important factor. Some companies mentioned additional factors of relevance,
239 including 'a simple and established manufacturing process to enable rapid development/access' and
240 'solubility and stability aspects'.

What is the youngest population for which a separate paediatric formulation would be considered?



241

242 *Figure 4: Summary of the youngest populations which are considered for a separate paediatric formulation during drug and*
243 *formulation development.*

244 3.3.2 Preferred paediatric platform technology

245 A preferred platform technology offers the opportunity to develop expertise in a particular formulation
246 design and manufacturing process which can be of value across the full range of paediatric products.
247 This can lead to lean and efficient development.

248 The survey asked about preferred platform technologies based on the age of the paediatric participant;
 249 the results are shown in Table 2.

	(Preterm) newborn, infant, toddler (0-23 m)	Preschool child (2-5 y)	School age child (6-11 y)	Adolescents (12-18 y)
Minitablets	5	8	8	2
Multi particulates	3	5	5	2
Syrups	6	6	4	1
Granulates	3	6	5	1
Free powder	0	1	1	0
Standard tablet	0	0	4	5
Suspension	9	9	8	2
Capsule	0	0	1	4
Dispersible tablet	5	5	4	3
Adult dosage form	0	0	6	10
Other	0	0	0	0

250 *Table 2: Number of respondents indicating different types of dosage form as preferred platform technology by age group.*
 251 *Note that multiple platforms could be selected for each age band.*

252 In the youngest populations (< 2 years), the risk of choking limits the use of certain dosage forms,
 253 making liquid formulations (suspensions and syrups) as well as dispersible tablets the preferred
 254 platforms. In addition, minitables were preferred to multiparticulates and granulates in this youngest
 255 population. A similar trend was observed in pre-school children (2-5 years), although there was a
 256 growing proportion of those who would consider minitables, multiparticulates and granulates. For
 257 school age children (6-11 years), the use of the adult dosage form, a standard tablet and a capsule was
 258 mentioned as preferred platform by some companies; these dosage forms can negate the need for
 259 bespoke paediatric development and are therefore very cost efficient, assuming that the dose banding
 260 does not dictate the need for multiple units. The trend of using the adult or monolithic solid dosage
 261 forms further increased for adolescents, accompanied with a decreased mentioning of liquid
 262 formulations as preferred platform technologies.

263 From these data, certain formulations, including syrups, suspensions, dispersible tablets, mini tablets,
 264 multiparticulates and granulates, appear to be suitable for use in all paediatric age groups, as well as
 265 in adults. There is some merit in the development of a single yet flexible type of formulation for all
 266 patients; however, this is yet to be observed in practice.

267 3.3.3 Excipient selection for paediatric products

268 As excipients often make up most of a drug's formulation, their use in paediatric formulations should
269 be thoroughly investigated. As such, questions regarding their safety and tolerability within the
270 paediatric population are eminent. Consequently, the opinion regarding the use of excipients and the
271 use and research of new excipients was questioned. Regarding the selection of excipients for paediatric
272 products, none of the responding companies is actively looking for new excipients to improve
273 paediatric formulations. The majority of respondents (58.33 %) indicated to only look for new
274 excipients when an acceptable formulation cannot be achieved using current standard excipients.
275 33.33 % of the respondents used only the standard and well-known excipients listed in pharmacopoeia
276 or excipients generally regarded as safe (GRAS) or mentioned in the Safety and Toxicity of Excipients
277 for Paediatrics (STEP) database. The remaining 8.33% preferred not to answer this question. Regarding
278 the possible use and research of new excipients which haven't been used in the past, 25 % of the
279 respondents either never use novel excipients or avoid their use by altering the dosage form or
280 formulation strategy. 75 % of respondents only use a novel excipient if no alternative options are
281 available.

282 Considering safety is the main driving force in the selection of an excipient, it was raised that the
283 accepted daily intake (ADI) of a pharmaceutical excipient is based on a mg/kg body weight. In this
284 regard, the safety of excipients has recently been questioned for paediatric products and the survey
285 asked whether this affects paediatric excipient selection. Excipient selection was most reported (66.67
286 %) to be based on the ADI to create uniform but flexible dosage forms across target age groups; 25 %
287 let the age-appropriate dosage form selection drive the excipient choice and 8.33 % of the companies
288 does not let excipient selection drive formulation type selection.

289 3.3.4 Taste masking of oral paediatric formulations

290 Taste masking of oral dosage forms is an important aspect to improve drug acceptability/palatability,
291 patient compliance and therapy adherence in children. As such, all responding companies consider
292 taste masking during the development of paediatric formulations. In particular, taste masking is
293 considered for syrups and suspensions (91.67 % of respondents) and for buccal or sublingual tablets
294 (75 %). Most respondents (75 %) also consider taste masking for immediate- or extended-release
295 tablets/capsules. One company specifically mentioned considering taste masking for granules and
296 minitables.

297 'Non-sugary sweeteners' such as xylitol are the most commonly used excipients by the responding
298 companies (83.33 %), followed by 'flavours' (66.67 %). Also a 'modifying film coat' (25 %), the 'dosing
299 vehicle (food)' (16.67 %) and 'sugars' (16.67 %) were reported as taste masking excipients.

300 Measurement of taste masking efficiency is a known issue during product development (Guedes et al.,
301 2021; Keating et al., 2020). The survey asked about how taste masking was assessed. For most
302 companies (41.67 %), a 'sip and spit clinical study' is the general approach in initial taste masking
303 assessment (41.67 %). 25 % of the companies uses an electronic tongue to assess taste masking. The
304 remaining companies mentioned the 'rat brief-access taste aversion (BATA) test' (8.33 %) or data on
305 'taste assessments in clinical studies/first-in-man study' (8.33 %) as the general approach for the initial
306 measurement of taste masking. One company indicated to have no approach at the moment.

307 3.4 In-vitro, in-silico and in-vivo biopharmaceutical methods in the development of 308 paediatric formulations

309 The efficient development of drug products requires that the disposition of APIs and the performance
310 of formulations in the human body can be predicted prior to the execution of clinical trials. To this end,
311 in-vitro tools, in-silico modelling and non-clinical in-vivo experiments can be of great value, provided
312 that these approaches adequately simulate the human physiology so that relevant information on drug
313 behaviour and disposition can be generated. Lately, significant advances have been made in the
314 biorelevant evaluation of drug products. Most optimizations, however, were tailored to the adult
315 population.

316 This section of the survey sought to identify how in-vitro, in-silico and non-clinical in-vivo techniques
317 are scaled for the different paediatric subpopulations and how physiological differences are accounted
318 for within these methods. Additionally, it was evaluated how often clinical trials in paediatrics are
319 performed.

320 Based on the responses on this survey, conventional drug solubility, USP-based dissolution techniques
321 and classification according to the Biopharmaceutics Classification System/Developability
322 Classification System (BCS/DCS) are still the most used biopharmaceutical tools in industry for
323 paediatric oral product development (Table 3). This makes sense as these are some of the oldest, most
324 tested and widely accepted tools by both regulatory authorities and academia.

325 These conventional approaches are followed by single-stage advanced biorelevant dissolution
326 techniques and by modelling and simulation techniques (Table 3). As compared to conventional
327 dissolution tests, single-stage biorelevant dissolution techniques aim to better simulate physiological
328 conditions in the gastrointestinal (GI) tract by considering, for instance, GI volumes, hydrodynamics
329 and media composition. Modelling and simulation techniques raise interest and application due to
330 their mechanistic character and relatively cheap insight generation compared to more labour intensive
331 in-vitro or in-vivo tests. Both single-stage biorelevant dissolution testing and modelling and simulation

332 are of particular interest for paediatric drug development as they allow to integrate paediatric
333 physiology in drug and formulation evaluation.

334 Comparatively, the least used systems are dynamic multi-stage (or -phase) in-vitro systems (Table 3).
335 While such models, including biphasic dissolution testing, the dynamic gastric model, TNO Intestinal
336 model (TIM) 1 and tiny-TIM, further improve the biorelevant simulation of the GI tract by introducing
337 additional physiological factors such as fluid absorption and secretion, contractions, transit... (Vinarov
338 et al., 2021), they also significantly increase the complexity of the generated output. Additionally, these
339 models come with the added disadvantages of increased cost, increased time consumption and lower
340 throughput (Vinarov et al., 2021).

Ranking	Function
1	Conventional drug solubility/USP-based techniques
2	BCS/DCS classification
3	Modelling and simulation techniques
4	Advanced biorelevant dissolution techniques
5	Dynamic in vitro systems

341 *Table 3: Ranking of different in vitro tools which are most used during paediatric oral drug product development.*

342 The current preference of the industry for conventional, relatively simple biopharmaceutical tools over
343 more complex models for paediatric drug development seems related to the biggest challenges in
344 using biopharmaceutical tools. The survey respondents voted for the unknown clinical relevance,
345 translatability and regulatory acceptance of biopharmaceutical tools as major challenges, which
346 obviously hamper the implementation of biorelevant techniques to evaluate drug products for the
347 paediatric population.

348 3.4.1 In-vitro biopharmaceutical tools

349 3.4.1.1 *Integration of gastric emptying into predictive in-vitro tools*

350 The emptying of gastric contents into the small intestine (SI) can have a substantial effect on drug
351 release and dissolution and consequently drug exposure. Integrating gastric emptying (GE) into in-vitro
352 models has shown to improve their ability to predict in-vivo absorption in adults (Štefanič et al., 2012)
353 and is being explored in paediatrics. In-vivo data have shown that GE is variable in the paediatric
354 population (Stillhart et al., 2020) and dependent on the type of meal (Bonner et al., 2015). It therefore
355 appears to be relevant to consider GE when testing paediatric drug product dissolution.

356 Of the participating companies, 41.67 % indicated to be taking this into account. To do so, they use a
357 variety of tools where the majority uses the 2-stage dissolution dumping (80 %) or transfer method (60

358 %) Only 16.67 % of the companies indicated they use the (tiny) TNO intestinal model and 1 company
359 uses the USP 4 open loop system.

360 *3.4.1.2 Integration of GI pH into predictive in-vitro tools*

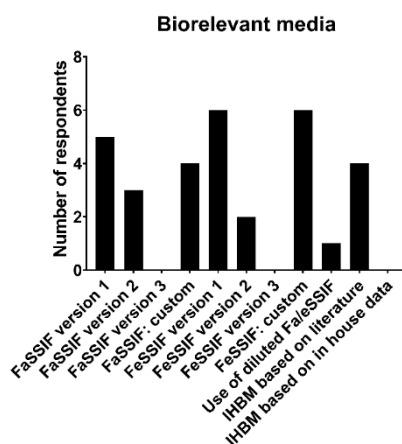
361 For adults, a fasted state gastric pH of 1-2 is usually set as a baseline in in-vitro experiments. For the
362 intestinal pH, a distinction between the small and large intestine is usually made, with the small
363 intestinal baseline pH ranging between 6.5 and 7.4, and the large intestinal baseline pH ranging
364 between 5.5 and 7 (Evans et al., 1988; Nugent et al., 2001). However, measurements of the GI pH in
365 children have shown differences that should, ideally, be considered during in-vitro testing (Fallingborg
366 et al., 1990; Mooij et al., 2012; Van Den Abeele et al., 2018).

367 For paediatric in-vitro work, survey responses show that most companies (75 %) use setups with a
368 simulated gastric pH of 1-2. Only one company (8.33 %) indicated to be using higher pH levels. 16.67%
369 of the responding companies chose not to answer this question. Even though no specific pH levels
370 were questioned in this survey, the use of higher pH levels would be in line with literature data. As
371 reported by Mooij et al. (Mooij et al., 2012) and Van Den Abeele et al. (Van Den Abeele et al., 2018),
372 gastric pH levels of up to 3 have been measured for the paediatric population.

373 For the in-vitro simulation of small intestinal pH in the paediatric population, all responding companies
374 use a pH between 6.5 and 7.4. This is in line with the pH profile observed by Fallingborg et al., for
375 children aged between 8 and 14 years (Fallingborg et al., 1990) and is comparable to the profile for
376 adults. Also for the large intestine, all responding companies use a pH range that corresponds to the
377 baseline for adults (i.e., pH 5.5-7). It should be noted that 16.67 % of the responding companies chose
378 not to answer this question.

379 *3.4.1.3 Integration of biorelevant media into predictive in-vitro tools*

380 When looking at which biorelevant media are used for paediatric in-vitro testing of formulations, most
381 of the responding companies (83.33 %) use FaSSIF and FeSSIF version 1 and 2 while version 3 is not
382 used (Figure 5). Additionally, some companies use custom versions of FaSSIF and FeSSIF or in-house
383 type of biorelevant media (IHBM) of which the composition is based on literature. No companies
384 prepare media based on in house data. Lastly, 16.67% of the responding companies chose not to
385 answer this question.



386

387 *Figure 5: Types of biorelevant media and the frequency of their respective usage by the pharmaceutical industry in the*
 388 *evaluation of paediatric drug products, 10 responding companies in total.*

389 *3.4.1.4 Integration of biorelevant GI volumes into dissolution testing*

390 Although data are relatively scarce, significantly lower volumes of GI fluids have been reported in
 391 paediatrics compared to adults (Goelen et al., 2021; Papadatou-Soulou et al., 2019). Obviously, altered
 392 GI volumes may affect drug dissolution and even impact BCS/DCS drug classification. When asking how
 393 fluid volumes are handled in biorelevant dissolution testing for paediatric drug development, 46.15 %
 394 of the respondents indicated to use a volume between 100-500 mL, which is in line with
 395 pharmacopoeias advised volumes for adults. However, 23.08 % of the respondents indicated to be
 396 using a volume of 500 mL or more, being even higher. Interestingly, only 15.38 % of the companies use
 397 volumes below 100 mL, which are more representative for the paediatric physiology. Lastly, 15.38 %
 398 of the respondents chose not to answer this question.

399 *3.4.1.5 Regulatory input on dissolution methodology*

400 About 41.67 % of the companies indicated that their proposed in-vitro drug dissolution assay for the
 401 paediatric formulations has been questioned/scrutinized by a regulatory agency. Around 33.33 % of
 402 the companies responded that they hadn't come across any such scrutiny and 25 % of the companies
 403 chose not to answer the question. Next it was questioned whether any of the adult drug products have
 404 been subject to a change in drug solubility classification for a proposed paediatric formulation. Most
 405 companies indicated that they have not yet been subjected to any change in drug solubility
 406 classification for paediatric formulations (75 %). Only one company (8.33 %) had an adult drug product
 407 which had been subject to such a change. The remaining 16.67 % of the companies chose not to answer
 408 the question.

409 *3.4.2 In-silico modelling and simulation*

410 To substantiate drug development, gathering sufficient safety and efficacy data in children can be
 411 difficult due to the limited and challenging recruitment of patients. Paediatric research, therefore,
 412 needs to be more efficient with the available, limited information in-hand. In this regard, in-silico

413 modelling techniques can play a significant role in making an optimal use of the limited opportunities
414 for paediatric research with a limiting dataset, thereby increasing the knowledge gained from the
415 paediatric trials (European Medicines Agency, 2008; Jadhav et al., 2009; Johnson and Rostami-
416 Hodjegan, 2011; Manolis et al., 2011). In the recent past, various in-silico techniques that include but
417 are not limited to population pharmacokinetic (POP-PK) modelling, study optimization tools, Bayesian
418 approaches, physiology based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) modelling and PK-PD correlation based
419 modelling are making a significant difference in the paediatric research.

420 The diverse applications of in-silico modelling tools in paediatric research have fostered a great interest
421 in the use of these techniques within the industry as well as with the regulatory agencies. This is
422 reflected in their frequent reference across the recently approved drug labels, regulatory guidance and
423 concept papers. In recent years, the stronger interest of regulatory agencies in the application of
424 modelling and simulation techniques in paediatric medicines development has also resulted in a
425 widespread use of these tools within drug development programmes (European Medicines Agency,
426 2021b; US Food and Drug Administration, 2019a, 2017).

427 *3.4.2.1 Paediatric dose estimation*

428 During the survey, the participants were asked about the techniques they use for paediatric dose
429 estimation. The most used in-silico tool for dose estimation for paediatrics is 'PBPK modelling' (83.33
430 %), which is followed by 'allometric scaling using POP-PK modelling' (58.33 %). 'Simple allometric
431 scaling' appears to be the least used technique amongst the participants (41.67 %). Contrary to the
432 conventional empirical or semi-mechanistic modelling approaches, the PBPK models are based on
433 physiological considerations and integrate two classes of information: system/biology data derived
434 from physiological characteristics of the species or population studied, and drug/formulation data
435 derived from the relevant physicochemical and disposition attributes of the compound and/or its
436 dosage form.

437 The PBPK modelling framework thus provides users with the ability to extrapolate between
438 populations, making it possible to relate the drug information obtained from the healthy adults to the
439 target paediatric population, provided (patho-)physiologies are well defined within the system.
440 Additionally, models verified within healthy volunteers can also support the risk assessment by
441 exploring the possible interactions and the effect of impaired organs/tissue characteristics within the
442 target patient population. Therefore, the survey results, endorsing a higher use of PBPK based
443 modelling techniques compared to the conventional in-silico techniques (e.g., empirical or semi-
444 mechanistic allometric modelling), are not surprising.

445 3.4.2.2 *Integration of paediatric physiology into in-silico tools*

446 The PBPK modelling framework separates the information based on the system biology (human
447 physiology) from the drug and the study design parameters. The “default” system/biology data in the
448 form of population libraries files within the commercial software platforms is the responsibility of the
449 software providers. These files are built from an extensive analysis of demographic, anatomic and
450 ontogeny characteristics of a target paediatric population. Customized changes within these default
451 physiological settings are generally undertaken by the modelers to mimic the target (patient)
452 population as closely as possible in terms of a given disease condition, pathophysiology, or sometimes
453 to account for the effect of ontogeny and allometry on certain system parameters. Consequently, any
454 such customized changes within the default population files should be highlighted and the rationale
455 for the chosen system-dependent parameter values needs to be supported by relevant literature
456 references and the responsibility for the same lies with the modelers (Dibella et al., 2016; Jones et al.,
457 2015; Parrott et al., 2021).

458 When participants were further asked about how paediatric physiology was accounted for within in-
459 silico tools, the majority of the respondents indicated ‘PBPK modelling using commercial software with
460 customized physiological settings’ (41.18 %), which was followed by ‘PBPK modelling using commercial
461 software with default physiological settings’ (29.41 %) and a few responded with ‘based on previous
462 population based pharmacokinetic modelling scaling’ (17.65 %). The other options like ‘PBPK modelling
463 using custom in-house software’ and ‘allometric scaling’ were only selected by 5.88 % of the
464 respondents.

465 3.4.2.2.1 *Integration of GI motility and transit into in-silico tools*

466 Most of the respondents indicated that they take paediatric GI motility and GI transit into account
467 within PBPK modelling (58.33 %). A third of the respondents mentioned that they do not take these
468 aspects into account. Lastly, 8.33 % of the companies chose not to answer the question.

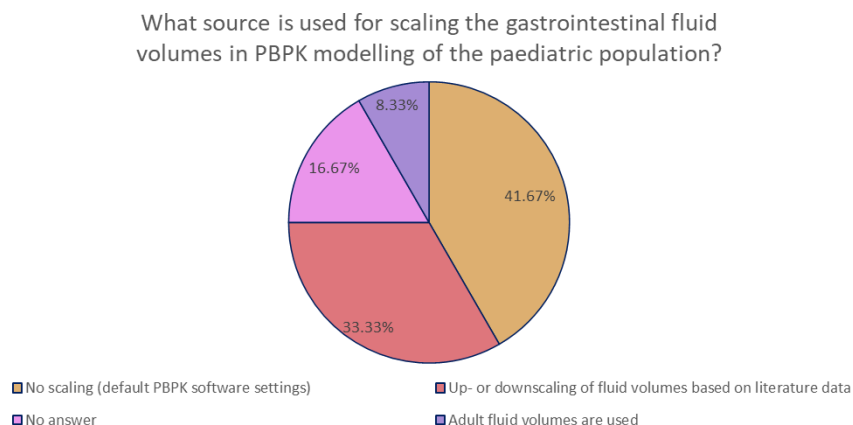
469 3.4.2.2.2 *Integration of GI pH into in-silico tools*

470 When asked for the GI pH-values used for paediatric populations within in-silico models, 41.67 % of
471 the companies reported using pH 1-2 for the gastric region whilst 25 % use higher gastric pH values.
472 The remaining 33.33% preferred not to answer this question. For both the small and large intestine,
473 58.33 % use pH-values corresponding to the baseline ranges used for adults (i.e., 6.5-7.4 in the small
474 intestine and 5.5-7 in the large intestine), whilst 8.33 % reported using higher and 16.67 % reported
475 using lower values. The remaining 16.67% preferred not to answer this question. As compared to in-
476 vitro tools (Section 3.4.1.2), some companies appear more inclined to adjust pH values in in-silico
477 models for the paediatric population.

478 3.4.2.2.3 Integration of GI fluid and their composition into in-silico tools

479 When questioned about whether correction factors, if any, were applied for bile salt concentrations in
480 the paediatric population, the majority of the respondents indicated that the bile salt concentration is
481 scaled using the commercial PBPK software (83.33 %). 8.33 % indicated downscaling of the individual
482 bile salt concentrations specifically. Lastly, 8.33% chose not to answer this question.

483 The survey also revealed that the majority of the respondents handle GI fluid volumes in PBPK
484 modelling of the paediatric population by using 'the standard/default values provided within the PBPK
485 software' (66.67 %), while the rest indicated that they decrease the volumes compared to the standard
486 PBPK input (25 %). Interestingly, however, 8.33 % of the companies handle GI fluids as 'volumes of the
487 adult population' and another 8.33 % chose not to answer the question. When asked for what source
488 users use for scaling GI fluids within the paediatric population, most of the companies indicated that
489 GI fluid volumes were not scaled up or down for the paediatric population and the default paediatric
490 PBPK software settings are used (41.67 %). Besides, most of the others use literature dataset for up-
491 downscaling of paediatric GI fluid volumes (33.33 %). 8.33 % of the respondents indicated using 'adult
492 GI fluid volumes'. 16.67 % of the companies chose not to answer the question (Figure 6).



493

494 *Figure 6: Summary of which data source is used to up- or downscale the paediatric gastrointestinal fluid volumes in PBPK*
495 *modelling.*

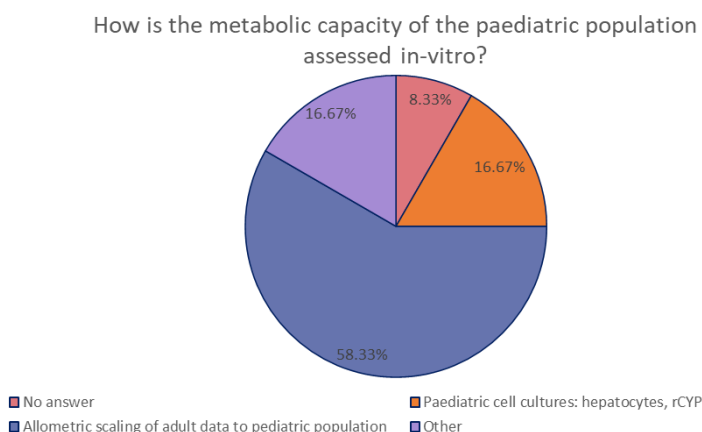
496 3.4.2.3 Sub-population scaling using in-silico models

497 Most of the survey participants (58.33 %) indicated using different scaling for different paediatric
498 subpopulations and handling all the subpopulations defined by the International Council for
499 Harmonization (ICH) separately. 25 % of the participants also use different scaling for different
500 subpopulations but do not use ICH categories. Only one company (8.33 %) does not consider different
501 subpopulations and one company (8.33 %) chose not to answer the question.

502 3.4.2.4 Integration of metabolic capacity

503 Mechanistic understanding of metabolic enzyme ontogeny and their application in paediatric dose
504 calculation is a well-known concept to the scientific fraternity and has been a well-established practice
505 for successful in-vitro-in-vivo extrapolation (IVIVE) of drug clearance. However, the role of ontogeny
506 of GI parameters in drug absorption and its application in designing in-vitro/in-silico characterization
507 techniques has not been explored widely (Batchelor and Marriott, 2015; Johnson and Rostami-
508 Hodjegan, 2011).

509 Based on the survey, the most used technique for integrating the metabolic capacity of the paediatric
510 population appears to be ‘allometric scaling of adult data to paediatric population’ (58.33 %), followed
511 by ‘paediatric cell cultures (hepatocytes, rCYP)’ (16.67 %). 16.67% of the companies mentioned other
512 techniques such as ontogeny profiles and PBPK modelling while 8.33 % of the companies preferred not
513 to answer the question (Figure 7).



514

515 *Figure 7: Summary of how the metabolic capacity in the paediatric population is tested or accounted for using in-vitro tests.*

516 For the scaling of enzyme and transporters abundance within in-silico tools, most of the modelers used
517 ‘scaling by commercial PBPK software’ (83.33 %), which is followed by ‘scaling based on proteomics
518 data from literature’ (25 %) and ‘scaling based on mRNA data from literature’ (25 %). ‘Allometric
519 scaling’ (16.67 %) is less used as a source. Only 8.33 % of the companies indicated the use of ‘in-house
520 measured activity for probe substrates’ and another 8.33 % used ‘in-vivo ontogeny function’. 16.67 %
521 of the companies chose not to answer the question. Also interesting, while scaling, most companies
522 considered different paediatric subpopulations (67 %).

523 3.4.3 Clinical in-vivo studies

524 In response to the question, “Are clinical studies using the paediatric population performed?”, most
525 companies reported only conducting clinical studies for newly developed drugs where use is specific
526 for paediatric patients (33.33 %). 25 % of the companies uses clinical studies for most newly developed
527 drugs and a further 25 % when they are required by regulatory agencies. 16.67 % of the companies

528 uses clinical studies for all newly developed drugs. As clinical in-vivo studies were not further
529 questioned, it is presumed respondents took all forms of clinical in-vivo studies (dose finding,
530 pharmacokinetics, efficacy, safety...) into account.

531 3.4.4 Non-clinical in-vivo studies

532 The majority (58.33 %) of the responding companies indicated that they use animals to simulate the
533 paediatric population. However, only 33.33 % of the participants reported the use of juvenile animals
534 for this purpose. In general, the preferred animal models include rodents (rats (41.67 %) and mice
535 (16.67 %)) and non-rodents (dogs (25 %) and minipigs (8.33 %)).

536 3.5 Food effects

537 Understanding food–drug interactions is critical to evaluate appropriate dosing, timing, and
538 formulation of new drug products. Food effect studies (in adults) are recommended for new products
539 to represent a worst case scenario where a high fat meal is used under a standard protocol that is
540 similar for both the FDA (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Food and Drug Administration
541 CDER, 2002) and EMA (European Medicines Agency, 2012). However, there are key differences
542 between the feeding patterns of paediatric patients and adults both in terms of food composition and
543 feeding frequency. In addition, the GI processing of food can be different in paediatric patients. A
544 review of 18 fed effect studies in paediatric populations revealed that 11/18 showed the same PK result
545 as that shown in adults, five showed different results to the adult study and two could not be
546 compared, indicating these differences in food effects should be taken into account (Batchelor, 2015).

547 In paediatric populations there is evidence that a wide range of drugs are mixed with food prior to
548 administration to ensure that medication is acceptable to the patient (Akram and Mullen, 2012). Much
549 of the efforts to explore food effects in paediatric populations relate to using food as an aid to the
550 administration of a medicine where the volume of food to be used is much less than a meal, thus the
551 relevance to a fed effect study with a high fat meal is questionable. However, the amount of food that
552 is necessary to initiate the fed state is not clear. Administration of a small amount of long chain lipid
553 (2g) to adults was observed to delay GE (Kossena et al., 2007).

554 This section of the survey explored how the co-administration of a paediatric product with food (to aid
555 palatability/acceptability) can be managed during product development.

556 As anticipated, the majority (91.67 %) of survey respondents actively explore co-administration of
557 medicines with food to improve drug acceptance. Examples of foods used as co-administration vehicles
558 include apple sauce, fruit (apple) juice, milk, yoghurt, (cereal) porridge, carrot mush, banana mush and
559 (chocolate) pudding. These foods are similar to those listed in The British National Formulary for
560 Children (BNF-C) (Royal pharmaceutical Society, 2020) where specific foods suitable for co-

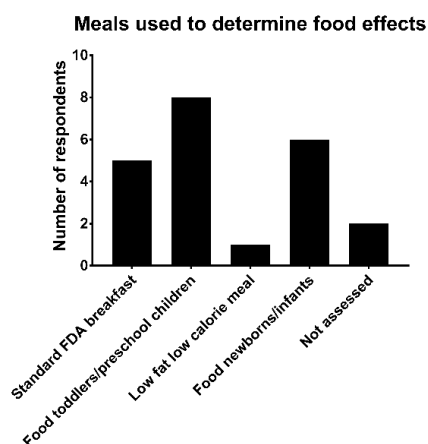
561 administration mentioned include: yoghurt, apple sauce, ketchup, squash puree, cereals, thin soup,
562 jam or honey, and drinks (orange juice, apple juice, milk). However there are differences to the foods
563 mentioned in the draft FDA guidance: formula for infants and jelly, pudding, or apple sauce for toddlers
564 (US Food and Drug Administration, 2019b).

565 3.5.1 Food used to explore a fed effect in-vivo

566 As it is known that paediatric drug acceptance can be difficult, EMA Guidance (ICH E11) (European
567 Medicines Agency, 2017) suggests that co-administration with food should be considered as a strategy
568 to improve palatability/acceptability. This approach mimics real world use and the guidance states that
569 “real-world use behaviours in administering paediatric drugs and the mitigation of associated risks will
570 contribute to the development of a drug product that allows for safe dose administration”. To further
571 detail their opinion, the EMA published a reflection paper, “Formulations of choice for the paediatric
572 population” (European Medicines Agency, 2006) which states that, “the product information should
573 specify which commonly available foods are suitable for mixing with the preparation, and also list foods
574 that should be avoided due to stability, compatibility or taste issues”.

575 In parallel, draft FDA guidance, “Assessing the Effects of Food on Drugs in INDs and NDAs — Clinical
576 Pharmacology Considerations” (US Food and Drug Administration, 2019b) states that for products that
577 may be sprinkled onto soft foods then the sponsor should perform additional in-vivo, relative
578 bioavailability studies using the soft foods listed in the labelling. The draft guidance also states that for
579 a new paediatric formulation the sponsor should conduct a fed effect study in adults and then
580 extrapolate the results to a paediatric population. The foods and quantities of foods should be selected
581 from those commonly consumed in a paediatric population (US Food and Drug Administration, 2019b).

582 To explore how the industry applies these guidelines in practice, it was first questioned which meals
583 are selected when evaluating an in-vivo food effect for a paediatric formulation. An overview of the
584 selected meals can be found in Figure 8. The most commonly used meal is ‘food representative for
585 toddlers/preschool children’ (66.67 %), followed by ‘food representative for newborns/infants’ (50 %)
586 and ‘standard FDA breakfast’ (41.67 %). 16.67 % of the companies do not assess food effects in-vivo
587 and 8.33 % use ‘low-fat, low-calorie meals’.



588

589 *Figure 8: Range of foods used to determine the in-vivo food effects of paediatric formulations.*

590 The FDA standard breakfast is reported to have a volume of 513 mL, which is consistent with typical
 591 meal volumes in adults (Klein et al., 2010); however, this would be a large meal for younger children.
 592 The survey revealed that 58.33 % of the companies reported using a volume representative for
 593 paediatrics whilst 16.67 % reported using a standard adult volume meal (note that two companies do
 594 not assess food effects in-vivo). Extrapolation of food volumes, such that a study in adults can be
 595 extrapolated to paediatric populations, is complex; for example, a tablespoon of apple sauce for a child
 596 may equate to a larger volume for an adult and it should be carefully considered whether the scale
 597 should be based on dose or GI physiology.

598 Using a scaled version of the FDA breakfast may be one option to understand food effects. In the
 599 survey, only one company (8.33 %) reported using a scaled FDA breakfast to better understand food
 600 effects in paediatric populations, while 25 % of the respondents reported that this could be considered.
 601 Cows' milk with a fat content of 3.5 % (whole milk) has a similar composition to the FDA standard
 602 breakfast meal with respect to the ratio of carbohydrate/fat/protein; it is also a more commonly used
 603 co-administration aid in paediatric populations and may be a suitable alternative (Klein et al., 2010).

604 3.5.2 Use of in-vitro tools to predict a food effect

605 In-vitro methods to predict food effects were reported to be used by half of the companies (50 %)
 606 where reported methods include: FeSSIF solubility and (physiologically based) dissolution, (tiny)TIM-
 607 1, dissolution with food added, and compendial USP (2) dissolution (with dose dispersed in soft food).

608 A major limitation of in-vitro tools to predict a fed effect in paediatrics has been the lack of clinical data
 609 against which such methods can be validated. Recent work has generated simulated paediatric
 610 breakfast media that may be used in in-vitro risk assessment of fed effects for future paediatric
 611 products (Freerks et al., 2021). Additional work has generated biorelevant dissolution testing
 612 conditions that include dosing with soft food and drinks (Martir et al., 2020a, 2020b). Although food

613 effects have been modelled using PBPK, there is yet to be a detailed study that uses PBPK to predict a
614 food effect from a co-administered vehicle in children (Riedmaier et al., 2020). The multicompartment
615 dissolution testing apparatus that mimics GI physiology, TIM paediatric[®], has been used to predict the
616 impact on bioavailability of drug co-administration with food (Havenaar et al., 2013).

617 4 Discussion

618 This survey gives some insight in how paediatric biopharmaceutics are handled in the pharmaceutical
619 industry. Insight was provided by experienced scientists in 12 pharmaceutical companies which are
620 actively performing paediatric research and development and have paediatric drugs on the market.
621 Questioned topics included general information regarding company policies, regulatory hurdles,
622 selection of the appropriate dosage form, in-vitro, in-silico and non-clinical in-vivo techniques, and
623 food effects.

624 Of the 74 questions which were sent out, only the questions with an interesting or unexpected
625 outcome were discussed in this article. However, all questions and responses are available in the
626 supplementary data. The results suggest that the participating companies had a rather conservative
627 approach to drug development where the focus mainly lay on the use of regulatory required tests with
628 only sometimes more extensive research.

629 Responses show that dosage form selection is still a major challenge in paediatric drug product
630 development. The use of adult formulations in older age groups, adolescents and some school age
631 children is reported, though sometimes not ideal. The use of liquids (syrups/suspensions) is still
632 popular for the youngest age groups. Minitablets, multiparticulates and granules offer a flexible solid
633 dosage form that is also popular for all paediatric age groups.

634 When testing these drugs and formulations in-vitro, the main challenge is to find a setup which allows
635 for a good in-vitro-in-vivo correlation and is therefore biopredictive. To do so, respondents of this
636 questionnaire often use the best researched and most widely accepted in-vitro tools such as solubility
637 testing, standard USP dissolution testing, standard biorelevant FaSSIF and FeSSIF media and the BCS
638 classification system. To incorporate some more physiological relevance, companies mentioned
639 adaptations to these standardized setups, such as the inclusion of a second stage to the dissolution
640 setup, literature-based adaptations to biorelevant media, changes in pH for solubility and dissolution
641 media, and the use of paediatric cell cultures for metabolism assessment. However, it should be noted
642 that the application of such changes are rather limited. For example, in the metabolism experiments,
643 only a minority of respondents (16.67 %) actually use paediatric cell lines. In contrast, the majority of
644 respondents (75 %) prefer scaling adult data to the paediatric population using allometric or PBPK
645 scaling. Two other parameters where this is seen are the biorelevant media and their volumes. 51.61

646 % of the used media were standard, accepted biorelevant media (FaSSIF and FeSSIF version 1 and 2),
647 while 48.39 % were adapted versions by, for example, dilution. For the fluid volumes used in-vitro, only
648 16.67 % of the respondents indicated the use of volumes below 100 mL while the other 66.67 %
649 indicated the adult representative volumes of 100-500 mL.

650 In general, clinical studies in paediatrics are mostly only performed as a regulatory requirement though
651 some companies seem to go the extra mile and perform clinical studies in children for all newly
652 developed drugs. As clinical studies in children are limited due to ethical concerns, animal in-vivo
653 studies are often used as potential alternatives. To perform these tests, rodents are most often used
654 as an animal model. Only a minority of companies use juvenile animal models for additional
655 representativeness.

656 The current survey results clearly underline the increased interest and use of in-silico modelling
657 techniques in paediatric drug research. User-friendly, graphical user interface (GUI) based PBPK
658 modelling systems are now commercially available and this has resulted in the widespread use of these
659 techniques in paediatric drug development studies. Based on the results from this survey, we see a
660 positive trend in the use of age-specific parameters in in-silico models, with all responding companies
661 incorporating paediatric physiology in some way. To optimize their use for these populations, specific
662 adaptations to the software are made with regards to GI fluid volumes, enzyme/transporter ontogeny
663 profiles and pH levels. Different sources (literature, in-house, allometric scaling...) are generally being
664 used as a basis for these adaptations. However, the majority of the respondents still use the default
665 values within the PBPK software. To the best of our knowledge, the probable reason for the fewer
666 adaptations to these standard input values is the difficulties in the validation thereof.

667 Lastly, current practice differs between pharmaceutical companies with regard to investigating the
668 impact of co-administration of food with paediatric products. To do so, a range of foods as well as in-
669 vitro tools are reported. A bespoke paediatric toolbox of in-vitro, in-silico and non-clinical in-vivo
670 methods are required to better understand the boundaries that impact upon exposure in relation to
671 the co-administration of food and how these can be risk assessed using standardised methods.

672 5 Conclusion

673 As a summary, the survey results clearly underline the positive impact of the paediatric regulations
674 and their overall uptake across the pharma industries. Even though significant improvements have
675 been made, major challenges still remain in the implementation of paediatric physiology into in-vitro
676 setups, more tailored and validated PBPK models, the effect of non-standard and paediatric relevant
677 foods and age appropriate and flexible paediatric dosage forms. However, with the current momentum
678 in paediatric drug development and research these challenges could be tackled in the upcoming years.

679 A rational development of medicines for children is now at the forefront of paediatric research and
680 after years of unintentional neglect, children's needs are primarily driving the product development
681 programmes more than ever.

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689 **Conflict of interest**

690 The author declare following competing financial interest(s)- Shriram M. Pathak is an employee of
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